

## EXPLORING THE IMPACT OF GENDER AND INCOME ON IMPULSIVE APPAREL PURCHASE CHOICES: A RESEARCH STUDY

Nilesh Kulkarni<sup>1</sup>, Sandeep Kelkar<sup>2</sup>, Chandrika P V<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1,2,3</sup> Faculty Members, Prin. L. N. Welingkar Institute of Management Development and Research, Mumbai

### ABSTRACT

In this day of escalating consumer expectations and fierce competition, marketers and retailers are constantly seeking for ways to boost their customers' share of wallet in terms of additional sales. Marketers today focus on optimising their clients' tastes, wants, and desires. A spontaneous, on-the-spot purchase done without prior preparation to buy a specific product category or achieve a set task is known as impulse purchasing. Impulse purchase is a popular research topic among marketers due to its prevalence in consumer behaviour as well as its potential in the marketing industry. Our study's goal is to investigate and examine the impact of gender and income on impulsive purchasing behaviour. Our data imply that females are more impulsive than males. Lastly, we also found out that repurchase of impulsively bought product is also likely to be seen more in females when compared to males.

**Keywords:** Impulse Buying Behaviour, Apparel Impulse Shopping, Effect of gender, Effect of income, post-purchase behaviour

### INTRODUCTION

Purchases made on the spur of the moment have long been recognised as one of the most important parts of consumer decision-making. Impulse buying occurs when a person sees a thing in a store and purchases it with little or no deliberation because they have a strong want to own it.

The word "impulsive buying" relates to spontaneous purchases (Dittmar, Beattie, & Friese, 1995). According to Applebaum (1951), spontaneous purchases are the outcome of promotional stimuli, and purchasing items is not planned in advance in the consumer's mind before embarking on a shopping trip. According to Kollat and Reed (2007), impulsive purchasing behaviour is a realistically accidental action when it comes to emotional preferences in shopping. However, the significance of characteristics such as gender and income.

Furthermore, impulsive purchasing is characterised as "an unintended purchase" characterised by "quite quick decision making and a subjective leaning towards instant possession" (Gardner & Rook, 1988).

It is defined as more exciting, less methodical, and more tempting buying behaviour when contrasted to planned behaviour. High impulsive buyers are more prone to have an unreflective philosophy, to be emotionally pulled to the item, and to desire immediate gratification. These clients are frequently careless about the harmful consequences of their actions (Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991). Their research focused on the cognitive and emotional responses that create a beam of imbalance and those that shoppers go through during spontaneous buying, and they

uncovered five separate elements that drive impulsiveness: (1) a sudden and unplanned impulse to act.

A feeling of overwhelming force from the product; an intense feeling of having to buy the product right away; disregarding any negative consequences of the purchase decisions; feelings of excitement; and a conflict between control and indulgence are all characteristics of impulsive buying decisions.

The conflict between the interior stirring wants to buy and the internal power of will not to buy is akin to a balance beam with the inclination to flip over in an instant. In the vast majority of cases, a modest alteration is all that is required to convert a consumer's purchasing behaviour from one of resistance to one of purchase decision. Previous research has found that emotional desires and cognitive willpower battle, resulting in an uneven beam.

Purchase behaviour is influenced by external elements such as cultural influences, economic forces, and internal forces such as beliefs, attitudes, and so on (Grant & Stephen, 2006). Cultural values have a significant impact on behaviour (Lam et al., 2009). Culture is integrally tied to consumer conduct; it is impossible to separate culture from consumer behaviour (Lukosius, 2004). The decision-making process is a major component in consumer behaviour when making any purchasing decisions, and it is influenced by gender as well as the gender composition within the nuclear family (Lee & Collins, 2000).

Male dominance was discovered to have a positive association with cultural belongingness, and there is also interaction depending on marital role in the purchase decision-making process (Webster, 1994).

Gender roles and cultural norms have been proven to have a major impact on purchase decisions in several studies (Bashir et al., 2013; Solka et al., 2011; Sun & Merritt, 2004; Mahmood, 2002; Lee & Robbins, 2000). According to a review of 86 studies, males are effective in masculine roles and females are effective in feminine roles, demonstrating that gender is an issue (Eagly et al., 1995).

Male domination still reigns supreme in collectivistic countries such as India, but there has been a minor movement in recent years, with female engagement in the purchasing decision process increasing. Females from this generation have been seen accompanying their families on shopping outings or engaged in solitary shopping activities in urban areas.

Culture, according to Hofstede (1980), is "the impact of collectivity on human personality that shapes human personality." Normative talents can have an impact on behaviour (Moschis & Cox, 1989). Cultural values influence human behaviour significantly (Tybout & Artz, 1994). When comparing the purchase habits of Japanese and American cultures, it was observed that their cultures significantly support their choices (Knight & Calantone, 2000). According to a multi-cultural impulse buying study (Kacen & Lee, 2002), collectivism, individualism, and other associated characteristics have a considerable impact on purchasing behaviour. Another study (Ahn et al., 2012) supports the premise that societal norms have a large positive influence on people's personal norms.

Culture, according to Hofstede (1980), is "the impact of collectivity on human personality that shapes human personality." Normative talents can have an impact on behaviour (Moschis & Cox, 1989). Cultural values influence human behaviour significantly (Tybout & Artz, 1994). When comparing the purchase habits of Japanese and American cultures, it was observed that their cultures significantly support their choices (Knight & Calantone, 2000). According to a multi-cultural impulse buying study (Kacen & Lee, 2002), collectivism, individualism, and other associated characteristics have a considerable impact on purchasing behaviour. Another study (Ahn et al., 2012) supports the premise that societal norms have a large positive influence on people's personal norms.

Gender refers not just to biological characteristics, but also to characteristics in men and women that are shaped by their cultures (DeMatteo, 1994). Gender plays a vital influence in cultural values, and the study discovered significant differences in male and female impulse buying behaviour in India.

In terms of gender inequities, research has shown that when two females go shopping together, they squander more time and money than single females (Underhill, 2001). According to Underhill (2001), the amount of money a client pays is a direct function of how much time they spend in the shopping mall. Females are said to crave more possessions than males and to enjoy shopping.

Irrational buyers may attribute their irrational action to delicate and distinct enjoyment requirements. As a result of this theory, impulse purchases become more cognitively complex. In their 1993 study on the emotion impulse buying connection, Rook and Gardner described impulse buying as an umbrella metaphor that incorporates incorrect assessments of unprompted and purposeful performances. Researchers initially discovered that impulsive buyers experienced higher levels of happiness, excitement, enthusiasm, and joy. They also argued that a shopper's personality influences impulsive purchasing behaviour and that decision-making cannot be distinguished solely on the basis of intelligence. Although information processing plays a role in the confirmation of a purchasing decision, they consider emotional commitment to be more significant.

Product dissatisfaction, regret, guilt feelings, low self-esteem, and even financial issues are unintended results of a lack of cognitive thinking. These repercussions demonstrate that decisions were made quickly and without much thought. Furthermore, this reasoning supports the notion that the tendency to acquire something on the spur of the moment is conveyed by modest cognitive effort.

Impulsive buyers are unconcerned about the outcomes of spontaneous purchasing decisions, as well as the costs involved with such actions. The majority of impulsive buyers are unreflective. Immediate gratification triumphs over all opposing.

Belief is central to cognition and the majority of significant purchasing decisions made by the average customer. The belief in impulsivity is an important component of impulsive purchase because it influences future purchasing intent. The more strongly people believe that impulsive purchases are irrational, the less frequently they buy, and vice versa. The frequency of purchases is unimportant to an impulsive buyer, and his or her beliefs are negatively associated to impulsive

buying. A rational buyer and an impulsive buyer are likely to hold opposite perspectives on the subject of spontaneous purchasing.

A drive is an emotionally taxing stage in which a person is subjected to emotions and physiological stimulations. When a need is triggered, the consumer is provoked and drained into the next stage of drive. As the desire rises, so does the want to make better decisions, resulting in increased involvement and knowledge sharing. Need identification and consumer incentives are linked, with incentives being rewards associated with things, services, and information that consumers understand will meet a need.

Inducements, also known as enticements, are a type of enforcement that persuades customers to behave in ways that satisfy their warm-fuzzy desires (O'Shaughnessy, 1987). In other words, enticement items are linked to the need identification phase, where inducements act as catalysts to close the gap between the actual and anticipated stages.

Buying impulses are defined as an irresistible need to purchase that is both powerful and affectively activated, with a higher potential for emotional provocation. As a result, any diagnostic or logical analysis related to the purchase decision takes a back seat to the most powerful, imagined purchasing cravings.

Anxiety and disagreement about whether the urge should be heeded or whether power over desire should be maintained precede impulsive activity. According to Hirschman (1986), the shopper's self-possessed feelings might influence the underlying wants that trigger an unexpected buying decision most of the time and in most buying settings. When a desire for anything is sparked, the need becomes so strong and uncompromising that it requires instant satisfaction.

As soon as a hurried buying desire occurs, consumers are influenced by an internal conflict between rational and emotional drives (Hirschman, 1986; Youn & Faber, 2000).

Purchasing and selling patterns have changed over time. The once-rational customer is now known to be motivated by factors other than logic. Buying is more emotional than rational, according to Sarki, Bhutto, Arshad, and Khuhro (2012). This study also discovered that a range of factors, including culture and lifestyle, influence customers' decisions to acquire a product. When making a purchase decision, customers, regardless of culture, go through five well-defined processes, including looking for information, recognising a need, making purchase and post-purchase decisions, and considering alternatives, and culture plays an important role at each stage.

It is yet uncertain whether impulsive buyers feel post-purchase cognitive dissonance. Disequilibrium after purchase would imply countering impulsive shopping behaviour, as post-purchase conflict would require the buyer to consider future purchasing decisions. However, past research has found that impulsive buying conduct is focused and does not include any consideration of the potential consequences of the abrupt purchase. However, negative emotions emerge in a customer following such a purchase, which can transform into a higher level of stress depending on the customer's level of cognition, and this post-purchase negativity combined with stress is known as post-purchase cognitive disequilibrium or cognitive dissonance. (1987; 1962; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993).

These impulsive buying research show that spontaneous purchasers may be more aware of their sensations or mood states during the pre-purchase time. In the post-purchase phase, spontaneous shoppers are more likely to experience stimuli and sensations than non-spontaneous customers. Cognitive dissonance occurs when end customers are caught between their purchasing desires and their readiness to resist them in a heated internal debate. According to Rook (1987), giving in to buying impulses may create vulnerable emotions in the proximity of the buying desire. As a result, giving in to emotional conflicts and dissonance may be linked to negative and depressing feelings (such as sorrow or bemoaning oneself) that shoppers may have after making a purchase.

Buying sensations are the feelings associated with impulsive purchasing, and it has been discovered that customers who have more pleasant emotional responses to the shopping environment are more likely to make impulsive purchases (Muruganatham & Bhakat, 2013). Piron proposed in 1991 that in-house stimuli refer to consumers' inner longings that push them to make an unexpected purchase.

The most pressing questions in consumer behaviour are whether intrinsic factors play a role in determining impulsive purchasing patterns. Is it possible for emotions to trump rational decision-making? Is it feasible to improve self-control and hence regulate irrational decision-making? Is it possible to identify a customer's psychological characteristics in order to analyse them?

The study address these questions and find the impact that gender and level of income on the impulsive buying behavior.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

For a long time, experts have attempted to comprehend the underlying notion of impulsive purchasing behaviour in the fashion sector. Our project is currently incorporating the findings of numerous researchers.

The word impulse comes from the Greek word *akrasia*, which meaning "weakness of will." *Akrasia* is described as "free, intentional conduct that goes against the agent's better judgement" (Audi, 1989; Mele, 1987). This understanding of 'impulse' is supported by a multitude of philosophical literature dating back to Plato and Aristotle.

Cobb and Hoyer (1986) define impulsive buying behaviour as the purchase of a commodity without prior planning. They also investigated the motivations for the behaviour, hoping that this would provide a more full and relevant picture.

Because shopping can be done for reasons other than a necessity for a product or service (Tauber, 1972), it provides for a more in-depth analysis of behaviour that is not typical of a 'economic man.' In the marketing world, impulse purchase has long been a mystery. It is a normatively inappropriate behaviour identified in the literature as the "dark side of consumer behaviour" (Wansink, 1994). Nonetheless, it accounts for a substantial number of items sold each year (Bellenger et al., 1978; Clover, 1950; Cobb and Hoyer, 1986; Kollat and Willet, 1967).

Wolman (1973) (cited in Rook 1987) investigated the nature of impulse as being biochemically and psychologically stimulated. Its biological component functions neuro-physiologically as waves of active change that travel through a nerve fibre and create a specific physical or mental

response. According to the psychological side of impulse, impulse acts as a stimulating and motivating force in both conscious and unconscious behaviours.

In more modern psychological literature, Goldenson (1984) described impulse as a strong, often uncontrollable urge—a fast proclivity to act without consideration. The psychological aspect of innate drive, such as sex, hatred, and hunger, is referred to as impulse in psychoanalysis. According to Freud (1911), impulses are manifestations of 'id' that conscious censorship cannot suppress. The pleasure principle, which necessitates a rapid release of tension; in other words, instant pleasure and no pain, regulates the 'id', which cannot tolerate any delay in gratifying.

'I want what I want—and I want it NOW!' aptly describes 'id's in contrast to the I pleasure d's principle, the ego is guided by the reality principle, which reserves the release of energy until an appropriate real-world circumstance exists. The ego temporarily suspends pleasure for the sake of practical constraints. According to psychological impulse research (Liebert and Liebert, 1998), a ban impulse has a sense of immediacy, spontaneity, urgency, and intensity to respond quickly. An impulse is particularly action-oriented and energetic at initially because of its rapid responsiveness to stimuli. It is thought to be directly evoked by a stimulus and thus reactive. Once engaged, an urge stimulates fulfilment of one's immediate pleasures without consideration for the consequences. An impulse is sometimes defined as uncontrollable and overwhelming, resulting in a sense of powerlessness or helplessness, as well as emotional arousal or response (Zuckerman, 1994).

Initial definitions of 'impulse buying' classified the phenomena as "any purchase made by a buyer that was not planned in advance" (Bellenger et al., 1978; Stern, 1962).

Later research on the 'unplanned vs. impulsive' component of purchasing, however, shows that categorising an impulse purchase as 'unplanned' when the decision is made solely within the confines of the store is incorrect. Furthermore, earlier research on this topic has been called into question.

According to Rook (1987), not all impulsive purchases are done on the spur of the moment. It is possible for a purchase to be well-planned yet nevertheless impulsive, while some impulsive purchases can be rather rational. Iyer's (1989) study resolved the controversy regarding unplanned vs. impulse purchases, claiming that while all impulse purchases are unplanned, not all unplanned purchases are made impulsively.

Many researchers agree that impulse purchase contains a hedonistic (Park et al., 2006) or emotive component (Piron, 1991; Shiv and Fedorikhin, 1999; Weinberg and Gottwald, 1982). For example, Rook (1987) recalls how clients thought the product was 'speaking' to them, almost asking them to buy it. This emphasis on the behavioural components of impulse buying resulted in definitions that accounted for the hedonically complex nature of impulses as well as the reality that impulses can produce emotional conflict, which is likely to trigger an action.

Following this phase of research on impulse buying, further research was carried out to better understand the nature of 'impulse buying' in connection to the product purchased. In this regard, seminal studies by Rook (1987) and Stephen and Loewenstein (1991) imply that humans, not products, experience the need to consume on impulse. Later study stressed the relevance of internal

motivators in the act of impulse buying and defined impulse buying as an interplay of internal and external motivators, with a focus on people. Cravings, strong wants to buy, and internal ideas are examples of internal motivators (Hoch and Loewen). External motivators include marketer-controlled or sensory cues sent by the marketing system, such as the product itself or atmospherics, whereas internal motivators include hunger pangs, overpowering desires, and a sense of helplessness.

As a result, over time, new dimensions have been added to the definitions of impulse purchasing. This mismatch in 'impulsive buying' definitions, on the other hand, needs a closer examination of the notion.

According to Hoch and Loewenstein (1991), impulse buying is a reactive purchase induced by a strong enough signal and incentive to overcome limits. As previously stated, the reactive nature of the impulse phenomenon needs a thorough analysis of multiple impulse motivators. As a result, the evaluation's next section focuses on many impulse buy motivators.

According to the literature, the causes for impulse purchases are divided into two categories: internal motivators of the client and external motivators in the buying environment.

This set of criteria is founded on the premise that internal motivators, such as a sudden desire to acquire something without obvious outward visual support, can lead to impulse purchases. These are also elements related to the shopper's internal thought processes. People can suddenly feel motivated to go out and buy something without any direct visual conflict (Shapiro,1992) investigation of several impulse motivators. As a result, the evaluation's next section focuses on many impulse buy motivators.

This impulsive drive to buy something can be prompted by a variety of thoughts, including self-discrepancy, defined as the difference between one's actual and ideal selves. Several researchers have investigated this in the context of a drive for symbolic self-completion, which can lead to impulse purchases (Wicklund and Gollwitzer, 1981). According to Dittmar (2005), excessive shoppers differed from regular consumers in several ways: they were more motivated to buy in order to improve their self-image, and they reported greater 'gaps' between how they saw themselves (actual self) and how they aspire to be regarded (ideal self).

They held more materialistic ideals, believing that amassing worldly items was the route to success, identity, and happiness. They bought more on the spur of the moment and regretted it much more. This means that there is a development from normal to excessive impulsive purchasing, with the desire to increase one's self-esteem being one of the primary underlying motivators.

When O'Guinn and Faber (1989) investigated it in the context of impulse buying, they discovered that ego was adversely related to compulsive buying activity. According to Verplanken et al. (2005), low self-esteem is a particularly significant source of the negative psychological emotions that lead to the use of impulse buying as a kind of psychological comfort.

In addition to the explanation stated above, existing research on the subject shows that low self-esteem is frequently associated with increased vulnerability to outside influence (Cox, 1964). In marketing literature, the need to maintain or enhance self-esteem has been connected to

consumerism and the purchase of particular esteem-enhancing product categories, such as those that improve physical beauty (Arndt et al., 2004). Arndt et al. (2004), on the other hand, solely looked at physical appearance, although other significant features can also be studied using the proposed lens.

People purchase objects not simply for what they can do, but also for what they represent (Levy, 1959). When academics began to investigate "hedonic consumption," the concept of items as "symbols" of being and consumption as a "barometer" of being took on a new dimension. This is defined as the characteristics of consumer behaviour that are related to the multisensory, imaginative, and emotional aspects of a person's product experience. According to prior research (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982), individuals respond to multimodal impressions from external stimuli (such as perfume) by encoding these sensory inputs. They also respond by producing multisensory images within themselves, which are all perceived by others.

There are two types of internal multisensory images: historic imaging, which involves reliving a real-life experience, and sensory imagery. Second, in the case of fantasy images, the consumer responds by conjuring up a multi-sensory vision that is not based on previous experience. The consumer creates a new sequence rather than replaying a prior one. As a result, hedonistic consumption can be related to creative reality constructions (Singer, 1966). Thus, hedonic consumption is based on what consumers want to be true rather than what they know to be true. This may be related to the idea of self-discrepancy (Dittmar, 1992; Lunt and Livingston).

The psychological distance between real and desired may play a role in motivating impulse—an impulse to travel the psychological distance between real and desired, and buying on impulse may assist in this journey. The previously suggested link between hedonic consumption, self-discrepancy, and impulse is a derived link that has not been explored. additional studies in this area could throw additional insight on the situation.

Piron (1989, 1991) defined autistic stimuli's function and importance in motivating impulse purchases as a type of internal stimulation. Hirschman's (1985) research on the cognitive processes involved in experience consumption (Malter, 1996) resulted in a focus on autistic or self-generated stimuli in consumer behaviour. Autistic thinking is self-contained and self-serving, and it develops as a result of internal impulses. This form of mental activity is usually sparked by unachievable or forbidden aims that can only be attained through fantasy. Autistic thoughts are frequently associated with passion and sensuality and do not adhere to logic or rationality. As a result, autistic thoughts can have a great evocative power and may lead to impulse purchases (Hirschman, 1985) and may lead to impulse purchases. Another factor that has been discovered to impact impulse purchases is the environment.

When asked to name the single mood that most regularly accompanied an impulse purchase, respondents most frequently mentioned 'joy,' followed by 'carefree,' and 'excited,' (Hirschman, 1985). Joyful people are more prone to generously reward themselves and believe they have perfect control over their behaviours (Rook and Gardner, 1993). When they are in a poor mood, some people make spontaneous purchases to raise their spirits (Elliott, 1994). It can also be



interpreted as behaviour motivated by a desire to cheer oneself up or be kind to oneself (Mick & DeMoss, 1990).

The availability of self-control resources is regarded to be an important element in determining when and why people engage in impulsive spending. Self-regulatory resources (Muraven et al., 1998) are characterised as a reservoir of energy that allows people to overcome obstacles and substitute undesired behaviour with desired behaviour (Baumeister and Vohs, 2004). This resource reservoir is global, and it is primarily self-regulated conduct that draws from it in a variety of circumstances. However, because this resource is limited, any activity or response in one area that depletes it reduces the effectiveness of all subsequent self-control (Tice et al., 2001) efforts.

This notion has been investigated in terms of temporal dimensions, with Baumeister (2002) claiming that people's ability to resist temptation is at its lowest at the end of the day as the self's resources diminish over time. As a result, consumers are more likely to make impulse purchases later in the day and in the evening. The results of a daypart study of customer impulsive proneness may have implications for sales promotion activities (Liao et al., 2009), which should be examined further.

Youn and Faber (2000) investigated both happy and negative mood states in their study, and they concluded that both are possible motivators for impulse purchases. The effects of "glad feelings," "depressed sentiments," "feeling flat," and "painful feelings" were investigated.

According to Verplanken et al. (2005), negative affect rather than positive affect is a driving force behind chronic impulse buying: impulse buying to escape unfavourable psychological states (Youn and Faber, 2000). According to their findings, negative affect is partially associated with cognitive impulsive buying propensity and is positively associated with emotional impulse buying tendency. Tauber (1972) investigates mental distraction from boredom as a motivator for an unexpected shopping trip, as well as severe mood studies. Personality had no influence on spontaneous purchases in any of this (Kollat and Willet, 1967).

External motivators are specific prompts associated with shopping setup. When a consumer encounters a meaningful visual stimulus in the retail environment, which is usually the product (Liang and Meng, 2008) or some advertising stimuli (Piron, 1991), their purchasing impulses are triggered.

Buying impulses are initiated by a consumer's sensations and perceptions, which are then followed by an urgent desire to possess it (I see I want to buy) (Rook and Hoch, 1985). A strong perceptual attraction to stimulus eliminates the need or ability to contemplate analytic evaluation or normal boundaries. Such a strong attraction appears quickly, instantly, and on the spot. As a result, the 'rapidity' of the 'purchasing impulse' provides compelling evidence that reactive impulse buying leads to action soon after being exposed to triggering cues.

In prior research on 'impulse buying,' 'encounter with the product' was regarded to be one of the most important triggers for impulse purchases. According to Rook (1987) research, consumers have the most difficulty avoiding temptation in the seconds after their interaction with the object. Another factor that has been linked to higher purchasing impulses is in-store browsing. It is expected to result in contacts with desirable products, which may lead to a desire to purchase

(Jones et al., 2003). Resisting this temptation becomes difficult due to the product's physical proximity. These early attempts to identify the extrinsic motivations of impulse purchases yielded a long list of 'things to focus on' for malls and department stores.

Impulse purchasing reflects a person's drive to indulge. As a result, numerous studies have taken a hedonistic (Kivetz and Simonson, 2002) or pleasure-seeking approach, which may lead to increased demand for associated commodities or products (Ramanathan and Menon, 2006).

In today's marketing scene, which is defined by rising aspiration levels, a willingness to spend and an apparent eagerness to use buy as an expression is becoming a way of life. This is facilitated by product availability and newer retail formats like supermarkets and hypermarkets, which stimulate impulse buying. All of the preceding criteria ensure that marketers and retailers have multiple reasons to understand impulse buying, as well as countless opportunities to profit from it.

Impulsiveness is defined by Beatty and Ferrell (1998) as "the dispositions (1) to experience spontaneous and sudden urges to make on-the-spot purchases; and (2) to act on these perceived drives with little deliberation or consideration of consequence." In the usual retail sector, research have demonstrated a positive relationship between the consumer's assessed impulsive propensity and the perceived want to buy impulsively (and hence acting on this urge) (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998). Many academics have investigated this personality feature, with results revealing that customers' approaches differed depending on their impulsive inclinations (Rook, 1987; Rook and Gardner, 1993; Rook and Fisher, 1995; Puri, 1996; Beatty and Ferrell, 1998).

When there is an increase in disposable income and credit availability, such buying behaviour is seen as more widespread in retail contexts. (Dittmar and Drury, 2000). Fashion businesses value impulse purchases because they generate significant additional money.

Fashion-oriented impulse purchases, it is suggested, are linked to emotive consumption traits such as fashion participation (Han et al., 1991), hedonic consumption (Hausman, 2000), and good emotions when shopping (Matilla and Enz, 2002). While the relationship between fashion-oriented impulse purchasing and affect is a hot issue of research, for the sake of this study, a simpler definition that refers to customers' impulse purchases of fashion products in addition to their scheduled purchases is used. According to Rook and Fisher (1995), impulsiveness is defined as a consumer's inclination to buy products on the spur of the moment, without thinking about it. Many clothing businesses encourage impulse purchases by deliberately displaying fashion accessories throughout the store to extend the customer's shopping experience (Varley, 2006).

Rook (1987) was interested in learning more about impulse buying since he believed it was still poorly understood. According to him, most models "do not describe the circumstance where arousal directly leads to action." Rook defined the term as a sudden, urgent, and persistent want to buy something right now, regardless of the consequences.

In their study, Rook, Dennis W., and Fisher, Robert J. show conceptual and empirical evidence that customers' normative assessments (judgements about the appropriateness of engaging in impulsive buying behaviour) affect the association between the impulse buying characteristic and consumers' purchasing decisions.

Stanford (1995) stated that impulsive behaviour has long been considered harmful, and that individual differences in impulsivity have been linked to a variety of socially relevant actions. Adolescent impulsive purchase is still a largely unknown phenomenon.

Consumers' purchasing intentions and expenditures in stores can be heavily influenced by emotions, according to Babin & Babin (2001). These emotions may be particular to certain things, such as the attributes of the objects, the customer's self-interest, the consumer's criterion for assessing items, and the value they place on their store purchases.

Gender differences in fashion behaviours have also been identified. According to Coley and Burgess (2003), gender differences play an important role in cognitive and affective impulse buying. They discovered that gender has a varied impact on purchase decisions since men and women have different psyches and hence make different decisions. Yang et al. (2011) conducted a similar study in which they included additional demographic factors such as income, age, and education. They discovered that demographic factors influence impulse buying. In a related study, Ahmad (2011) looked at numerous demographic characteristics and discovered that males are more prone to impulse buying than females, and that those under the age of 20 show much lower impulse buying behaviour than those beyond the age of 20. Purchases made in physical stores are more impulsive than purchases made online because impulse purchases are triggered by sensory experiences (e.g., store atmosphere, product layout). This sort of shopping is based on the stimulation of the five senses, which the internet lacks, hence online shopping may encourage impulse purchases less than shopping in physical stores (Moreira et al., 2017).

According to Aragoncillo and Ors (2018), 40.0 percent of consumers spend more money than intended in physical stores, whereas 25.0 percent spend more money online. This issue can be explained by the fact that when consumers buy online, they must wait for the product to be delivered, which can make impulse purchases impossible.

## **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

Problem statement can be derived based on the literature review and after analyzing the concerns that need to be “Analysis of impact of gender and income on impulsive apparel buying decisions”. This problem will specifically be emphasizing on how gender and the level of income has on the impulsive buying behavior of apparel.

### **A. Objective of The Study**

Impulse buying is a topic that has gotten a lot of attention from researchers, but it's still not fully explored. Marketers and scholars have been interested in the phenomena of impulsive buying for several decades.

The objective of our current study is to understand how the income and the gender of the consumer is related to the impulsive buying habit of apparels. To understand the same, we have derived the following hypothesis.

### **B. Scope of Study**

This study's scope is limited to respondents only from Mumbai. We have tried to analyze the impact of gender and income on the impulsive buying behavior in consumers while buying apparels.

### **C. Hypothesis**

H<sub>1</sub>: Income of the consumer is directly related to the impulsive buying behaviour of the consumer.

H<sub>2</sub>: Female are more impulse buyer of clothing than males.

### **D. Population and Sampling Techniques**

The population for our research consisted of Mumbai's urban class population, as the study was conducted to analyse the impulse buying behaviour of shoppers primarily in the Fashion Industry. The sampling technique used is convenience sampling.

### **E. Data Collection Method**

The research is based on the primary data collected. The primary data is collected using questionnaire and interviews. The entire study is based on primary data, as the conclusions are based on data acquired from a specified sample population, and the study requires first-hand data to answer the questions.

To test the hypotheses of the study, primary data was collected from customers who shopped at some of the prominent retail stores of Mumbai city of India.

The data was collected using a standardised questionnaire with two sections. The first component collected data on the respondents' demographic traits, while the second half included 14-items on a five-point Likert scale that assessed customers' impulse buying behaviour. The data was analysed by using Mean, Std. Deviation and ANOVA test.

Secondary data was used to validate and compare the conclusions gained from primary data, in the form of numerous published publications, findings, and case studies on the issue of impulse shopping.

## **STATISTICAL TEST PERFORMED**

### **A. ANOVA Test**

To discover the importance of income on the impulsive buying behaviour of apparel buying ANOVA test was done. In statistics, ANOVA is used to help us understand how our different groups of respondents respond, with a null hypothesis for the test that the means of the different groups are equal. If the difference between the two populations is statistically significant, it suggests the two populations are unequal.

We use a one-way ANOVA to see if there are any significant differences between the groups of our independent variables such as income.

95% is the confidence level that is taken for this study.

### **B. Independent Sample T-test**

To discover the importance of gender on the impulsive buying behaviour of apparel buying t-test is done. In statistics, t-test is used to compare the means of two groups and to understand how the two genders behave when it comes to impulsive buying in our present study. Through the test if it

is found out that there is significant result then it can be concluded that the two population can be said to be unequal.

We use independent two-sample t-test to see if there is any significant difference between the two groups of male and female.

95% is the confidence level is taken for our study.

**DATA ANALYSIS**

**Table 1: Number of males and females (Source: Primary data)**

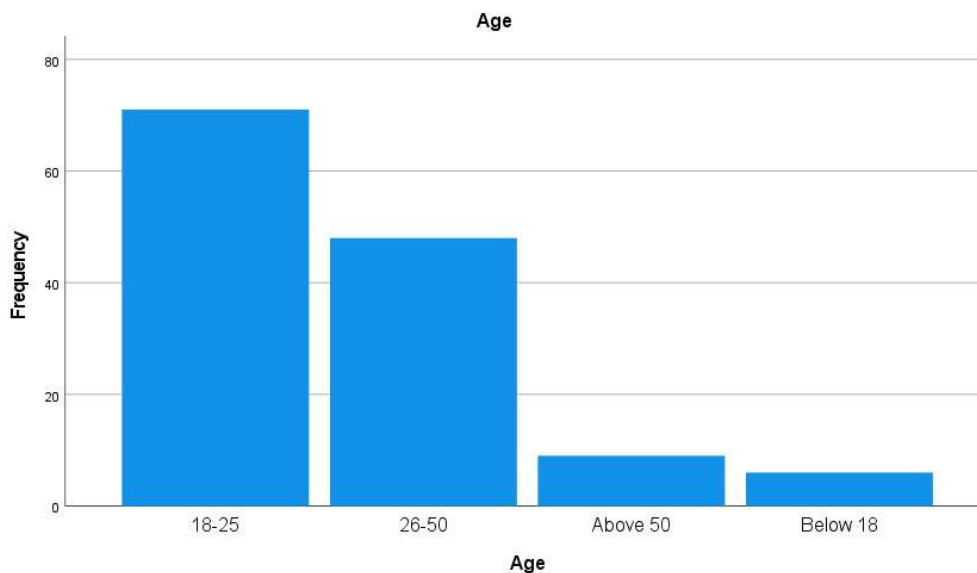
Gender	N	Mean
Male	58	.55
Female	76	.76
Total	134	.67

For our current study we have studied the responses of both the gender i.e males and females as our current study puts emphasis on the role of gender on impulsive buying behaviour of apparel. There were 58 male respondents and 76 female respondents with a mean of 0.55 and 0.76 respectively.

**Table 2 Number of respondents in different age groups (Source: Primary data)**

Age Groups	N	%
18-25	71	53.0%
26-50	48	35.8%
Above 50	9	6.7%
Below 18	6	4.5%

**A. Descriptive Analysis of Age**



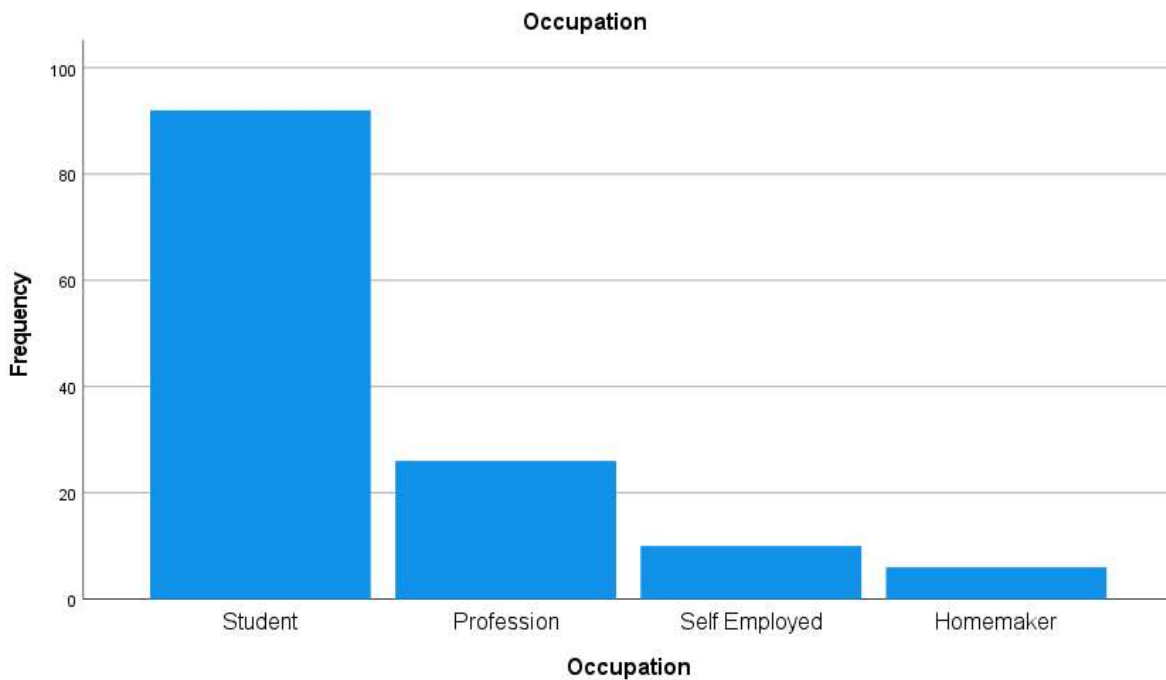
**Fig 1: Distribution of age of respondents (Primary data)**

In our current study we have respondents from various age groups. Respondents corresponding to the group of 18-25 years of age constitutes 53% of respondents, while those belonging to 26-50 years of age constituted 35.8%. We have only 9 respondents above 50 years of age and only 6 respondents below 18 years of age.

**B. Descriptive Analysis of Occupation**

**Table 3: Percentage distribution occupation of respondents (Primary Data)**

Occupation	N	%
Student	92	68.7%
Profession	26	19.4%
Self Employed	10	7.5%
Homemaker	6	4.5%



**Fig 2: Distribution of occupation of the respondents (Primary data)**

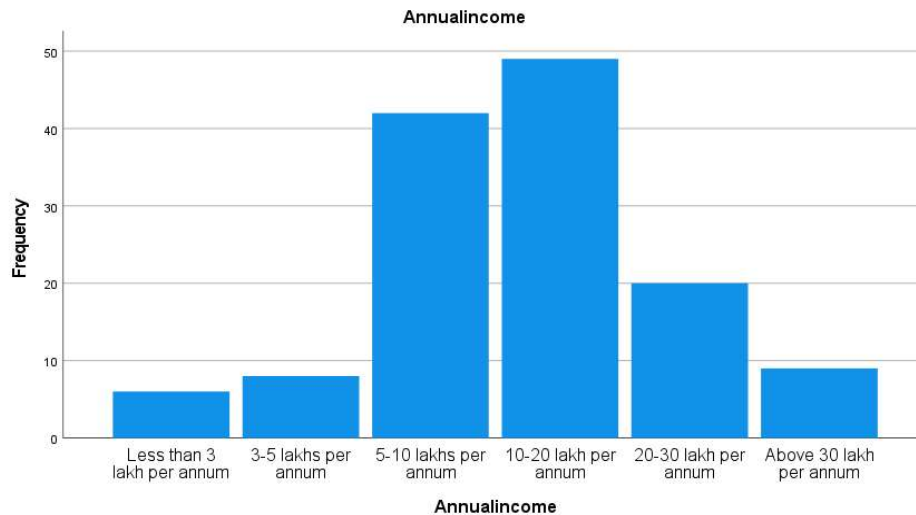
For our study we tried to gather our responses from people coming from diversified background, thus for our study we have people who are currently student and they constitute around 68.7% of the respondents, while professionals constitute around 19.4% of the respondents remaining respondents are either self-employed or are home-makers.

**Descriptive analysis of annual income:**

**Table 4: Mean and standard deviation of the annual salary of respondents (Primary Data)**

Annual Salary	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Less than 3 lakh per annum	6	1.00	.000
3-5 lakhs per annum	8	.75	.463
5-10 lakhs per annum	42	.50	.506
10-20 lakh per annum	49	.67	.474
20-30 lakh per annum	20	.75	.444
Above 30 lakh per annum	9	1.00	.000
Total	134	.67	.471

In our current study it is seen that our respondents come from different groups with different annual income. 4.5% of the respondents belong to the group with annual income less than 3 lakhs per annum, 6% have an income of 3-5 lakhs per annum, 31.3% belong to group with 5-10 lakhs per annum income, 36.6% are with an income of 10-20 lakhs per annum, 14.9% have an income from 20-30lakhs per annum while 6.7% have an annual income of 30 lakhs and above.



**Fig 3: Frequency distribution of salary of our respondents (Primary Data)**

**C. Descriptive Analysis of Post Purchase Moods of Impulsive Buying of Apparel**

**Table 5: Distribution of different post purchase emotions (Primary Data)**

Moods	N	%
Regret	19	14.2%
Happiness	55	41.0%
Guilt	24	17.9%
Excitement	29	21.6%

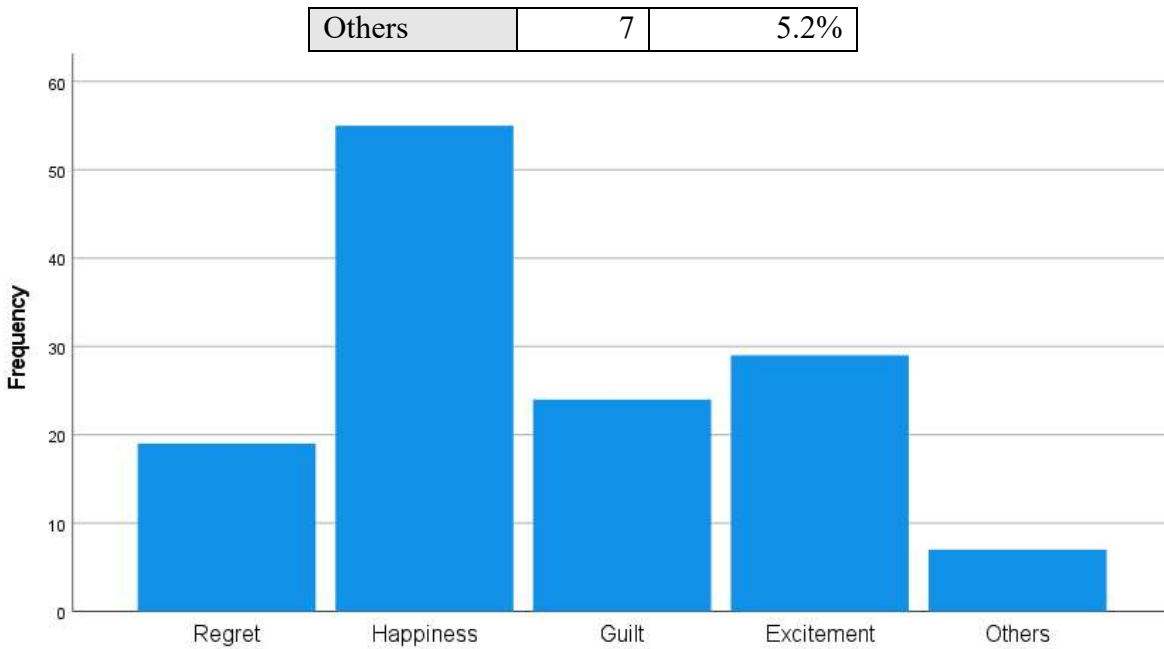


Fig 4: Frequency distribution of post purchase emotions (Primary Data)

In our current study we also tried to understand the various moods that may arise after an impulsive buying, the highest percentage of respondents reported happiness as the emotion after the impulsive buying.

**D. Descriptive Analysis of The Repurchase of Impulsively Bought Apparel**

**Table 6: Post purchase likeliness to buy impulsively bought product (Primary Data)**

Likeliness to buy repurchase impulsively bought products	Frequency	Percent
Least likely	16	11.9
Not likely	18	13.4
Neutral	28	20.9
Likely	55	41.0
Most likely	17	12.7
Total	134	100.0

From our present study it is seen that majority i.e., 41% of our respondents are likely to repurchase something they have bought impulsively.



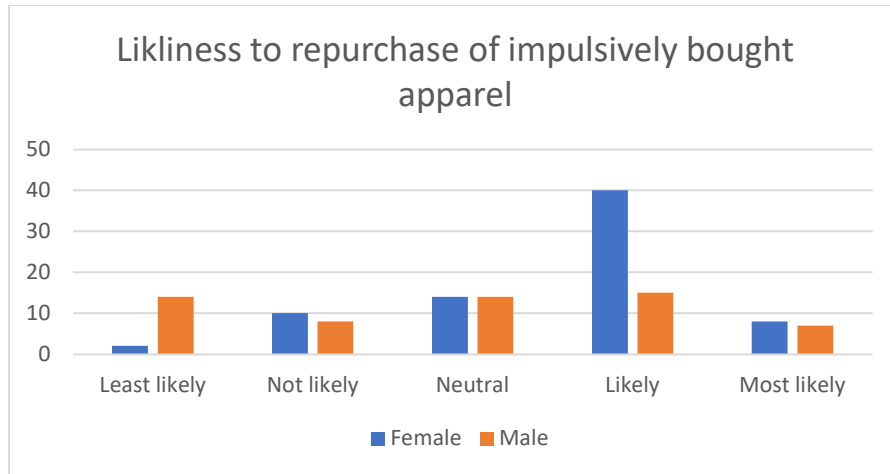


Fig 5: Distribution to repurchase of impulsively bought product based on gender (Primary Data) We also tried to understand the likeliness of repurchase with emphasis on the gender group. It is seen that females are more likely to repurchase apparel that they have previously bought impulsively.

**E. Descriptive Analysis of Perception of Income on Impulsive Buying**

We asked our respondents that whether they think that higher income in the future will lead to more impulsive buying behaviour in them and it is seen that 50% of our respondents have the perception that a higher income will lead to higher level of impulsive buying.

**F. Descriptive Analysis of The Factors Influencing Impulsive Buying Behaviour**

Particulars	Price	Variety	Discount and promotional schemes	Convenience
Mean	4.037	3.738	3.962	3.544
Standard Deviation	0.090	0.087	0.078	0.093

Table 7: Mean and Standard deviation of different factors influencing impulsive buying (Primary Data)

We asked our respondents which factor among price, variety, discount and promotional schemes and convenience influence their impulsive buying. To understand the same, we found out the mean and the standard deviation of each factor.

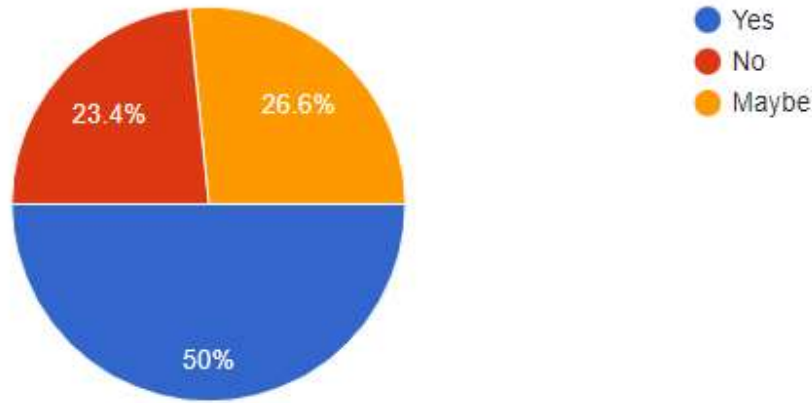


Fig 6: Distribution of perception of effect of income on impulsive buying (Primary Data)

**G. Impulsive Buying Behaviour in Apparel Shopping on The Basis of Gender**

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. error mean	t-value
Female	75	.76	.430	.050	2.575
Male	58	.55	.502	.066	

The t-test table shows that there are 75 female respondents and 58 male respondents, the mean for the female respondents is 0.76 with a standard deviation of 0.43, while the mean for the male respondents is 0.55 with a standard deviation of 0.502. The t-ratio is 2.575 which is significant 0.05 level of significance.

**Hypothesis testing:** We accept the test hypothesis as 2.575 is the t-ratio value which is significant at 0.05 level.

**Interpretation:** Hence, we can say that females are more impulsive buyers of clothing when compared to males.

**H. Impulsive Buying Behaviour in Apparel Shopping on The Basis of Level of Income**

Monthly income	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P-value
Between groups	3.027	5	0.605	2.921	0.016
Within groups	26.526	128	0.207		
Total	29.552	133			

The ANOVA table shows that the sum of squares of between the groups is 3.027 while within the group it is 26.526. The mean square between the group is 0.605 while within the group it is 0.207. The F value from the table is 2.921 which is significant at 0.05 level of significance.

**Hypothesis testing:** We accept the testing hypothesis which states that the income has a direct effect on the impulsive buying behaviour as the F value is 2.921 which is significant at 0.05 level of significance.

**Interpretation:** Hence, it can be said that the level of income has a direct effect on the level of impulsive shopping of apparels and also higher the level of income higher the tendency to buy apparel impulsively is observed.

## RESULTS

In order to understand the impact of gender on impulsive buying behaviour of apparel we had analysed the data with descriptive analysis and t-test as well. According to our data analysis it is seen that females buy more impulsively when compared to male and we have also accepted our test hypothesis which states that female buy apparels more impulsively when compared to males. According to our t-test the t-ratio is seen to be 2.575 which is significant 0.05 level of significance. In our study we had 134 respondents of which 58 were males while there were 76 females with a mean 0.55 and 0.76 respectively.

We also tried to understand the post purchase behaviour with emphasis on gender and asked our respondents as to whether they will repurchase the apparels they have bought impulsively previously.

According to our collected data it is seen that more than 40% of our female respondents are likely to repurchase something that they have bought previously. Whereas only 20% respondents have said they will repurchase products that they have bought impulsively.

We also tried to understand the perception about the relation between level of income and impulsive buying behaviour, according to our data 70% female respondents said that they think that higher the level income they have the more likely they think they will buy apparels impulsively, while there are 40% male respondents said they will buy more impulsively with a higher income. This shows that female respondents believe that higher the level of income the higher their tendency to buy something impulsively would be.

For our study we have also tried to understand the impact of level of income on the impulsive buying behaviour, for the same reason we have respondents with various level of income. We have divided the income level in different group, the first group consists of respondents with annual salary less than 3 lakhs per annum, then we respondents with income ranging between 3-5 lakhs per annum, then 5-10 lakhs per annum, 10-20 lakh per annum, then 20-30 lakhs per annum and finally respondents with annual salary of 30 lakhs and more.

To understand how these groups behave when it comes to impulsive buying, we performed ANOVA test to compare the means of these groups, the sum of squares of between the groups is 3.027 while within the group it is 26.526. The mean square between the group is 0.605 while within the group it is 0.207. The F value from the table is 2.921 which is significant at 0.05 level of significance. This shows that income directly impacts the impulsive buying of apparel.

We also tried to understand the perception of higher income level and its impact on the impulsive buying. From our primary data it can be seen that 50% of the respondents believe that if their income is to increase in the future then the level of impulsive buying will also increase.

We had respondents from different age groups, these groups were people with age below 18, between 18 to 25, followed by the group with age 26- 50 and finally respondents with age above 50 years.

Majority of our respondents were from the age group 18-25 and it constituted 53% of the total respondents, of the 53% of the respondents we had 54% were female and 64% out of these female respondents were impulsive buyers. 46% of the respondents were male respondents in the age group of 18-25, of these only 22% males said that they were impulsive buyers.

35.8% of the respondents were from the age group 26-50, of these 47% are female of these 64% females were impulsive buyer. 56% were males from this particular age group of these 43% said they were impulsive buyer.

Thus, we can see that females are impulsive buyers across the different age groups.

For our study we had respondents from various occupational background but students created the majority of the respondents followed by professional. 25% of the students said they would buy apparel impulsively and only 50% of the professional said they would buy impulsively.

This goes to show that professionals with a constant source of income tend to buy more impulsively when compared to the students and respondent from other professional background.

Post purchase behaviour

We also tried to understand the post purchase emotions in the respondents, majority of the them i.e., 41% reported they felt happy out of which 47% were female. 36% females reported they were excited after the purchase. While larger portion of the male gender reported they either felt guilt or regret after the impulsive purchase.

Factors affecting impulsive buying behaviour in apparel industry

In order to understand factors apart from gender and income, we tried to understand external factors including price, convenience, discount and promotional schemes and variety in impulsive buying of apparels.

According to the findings we see that price and discount have the highest mean and have greater impact on impulsive buying in our respondents. However, discount and promotional schemes have a lower standard deviation thus suggesting that all our respondents feel the same way and thus it is most important factor that influences impulsive buying of apparel.

Likelihood to repurchase impulsively bought products

We also tried to understand how likely someone is to buy something again when they bought it impulsively previously. According to our primary data we find out that majority of our respondents i.e., 41% say that they are likely to buy something again which they have bought impulsively previously, of which 75% are female respondents.

## CONCLUSION

Because of the complexities of the fashion sector, marketers have found it challenging to target impulse purchases. Because of the rising market and need for fashion and textile products,

businesses may be able to benefit on people's impulse buying behaviour. As a result, our study provides an insight and quantitative evaluation of the various aspects of Fashion-related Impulsive Shopping, focusing on factors as well as post-purchase behaviour.

Retailers must create an environment that decreases or removes purchasing obstacles, reduces intrinsic tension, and amplifies or at least sustains natural levels of enthusiasm, all while driving impulse spending. To enhance effectiveness and profitability, it is vital to design an impulsive strategy that pervades all elements of garment shopping activity.

The empirical findings first revealed that, while females are more likely than males to engage in impulse shopping, both genders are more inclined to shop impulsively when they are in a good mood, as prior study has shown. Furthermore, it appears that promotional programmes and decreased pricing have the greatest impact on driving impulsive purchases. Furthermore, contrary to popular belief, our research discovered that the majority of respondents were pleased with their previous purchases.

Modern Indian women are educated, informed, and technologically advanced. They enjoy shopping, especially apparel buying, and they frequently indulge in emotional spending through impulse purchases. Given their increased garment spending, this trend is expected to continue in the future years. According to the study, female consumers are impulsive when it comes to clothing products, and their impulsivity may be encouraged by deliberate employee interaction and sensible spending on store interior designs, particularly the selection of ambient fragrances that can create a sense of inquisitiveness.

Also, as the disposable income of Indian citizens increase in the near future according to the trend it can be said that impulsive buying will also increase as we see that the level of income has a direct effect on the impulsive buying behaviour, this has to be also considered by marketers while they strategies to increase their profitability through impulsive purchase.

Also, marketers should also consider that people purchase apparels not only in-store but online too, so large number of efforts should be given developing strategies to attract more people online and compel them to buy impulsively.

Given the potential of young Indian customers and the scarcity of literature on impulsive purchasing behaviour from a psychological standpoint, the current project has a lot to contribute. Retailers could utilise different colour combinations to increase a young consumer's cognitive dissonance, unpleasant advocacy, and affirmative buying experiences. Young individuals are preoccupied with appearance in order to please their loved ones. As a result, a range of product combinations can be a useful approach to entice and grow sales from this market segment. Pants, shirts, trousers, coats, and other ready-made clothing pieces can all be used to represent oneself. Marketers may distort the extensive planning phenomenon, disregard for potential consequences, and undermine the belief that impulsiveness is harmful in order to increase irrational buying behaviour among young consumers, while also amplifying undesirable advocacy, affirmative buying sensations, and cognitive dissonance.

Retailers could use different colour combinations to increase a young consumer's cognitive dissonance. This is because negative advocacy, affirmative buying feelings, and cognitive

dissonance all have a positive relationship with impulsive purchasing. Extensive planning, belief, and a high level of concern for potential consequences, on the other hand, have a negative significant relationship that must be inhibited in order to improve impulsive purchasing behaviour. Before releasing impulsive items, marketers must research the underlying characteristics of diverse consumer groups. This is consistent with the findings in the prior section, which show that customers with varied degrees of intrinsic components have varying levels of impulsive buy inclination. This could be generated by marketers employing various promotional strategies to instill spontaneity in customers.

According to the findings, women are more prone to cognitive dissonance, negative advocacy, and affirmative buying sensation than men. Similarly, when it comes to negative signs of impulsivity such as lengthy preparation, strong regard for potential repercussions, belief in impulsivity, and cognitive deliberation, females are weaker than their male counterparts. This would necessitate marketers targeting more female customers for unmatched sales than male consumers, and they should be more focused on distorting the negative signs of male consumers when creating any promotional or communication strategy to tempt consumers.

### **SUGGESTIONS**

In the world of garment purchasing, promotional offers and discounts are a significant motivator. The allure of getting the finest deals or buying a product item for a far lower price than it is worth, is a fascinating phenomenon. Taking advantage of the possibilities of such promotions and discounts is an excellent approach to encourage customers to shop and, as a result, purchase products with a higher perceived worth.

According to our study we also see that females are more impulsive buyers as compared to males; thus, marketers can take advantage and target more of female consumers.

Also, in our current study it is seen that higher income has a direct effect on impulsive buying, thus marketers should target from this sect of the society.

The study's target population was respondents from Mumbai, who were largely from the city's upper class. The conduct of the less affluent customers could not be depicted. As a result, it is proposed that a bigger, more representative sample of respondents from the other city be studied in order to confirm the disparities in their habits. The P value indicates that the customer's income influences their decision, and that females have a proclivity for impulse purchases. Their impact appears to be indirect, and other elements such as the shopping environment, product display, shelf location and space, and mood may have a direct affect on impulse behaviour.

### **FURTHER SCOPE OF RESEARCH**

Future research studies should incorporate other characteristics such as transaction speed, payment methods, shipping charges, delivery and online security, visual merchandising, shop environment, product descriptions, culture, and word of mouth. Time and availability are two important aspects that could influence the outcome of this research. All of these aspects have a role in the consumer decision-making process in the garment shopping industry, and comprehensive research of all of them is needed to better comprehend the phenomenon.

In terms of the intrinsic elements that influence impulse purchase behaviour, further research can be done. With relation to clothes shopping among Indian customers, intrinsic characteristics such as personality, culture, shopping enjoyment inclination, materialism, and impulse buying tendency could be researched in greater depth. These inherent characteristics may show distinct lifestyle traits among the demographics studied.

### LIMITATION OF OUR STUDY

While the study makes valuable contributions, it also has certain flaws. The study concluded that respondents' impulse buying behaviour in the store was based on two key indicators of impulse buying, namely, the desire to buy on the spur of the moment and spend more money than expected. Furthermore, the study looked into the impact of point-of-purchase (POP) discounts, shopper impulsive buying, and peer influence on impulse purchase behaviour.

Also, the sample was not the representative of all the population as it is majorly from Mumbai with a higher disposable income as compared to other citizen from different part of India.

### REFERENCE

- [1]. Gandhi, S. (2020). Analysis of impulsive buying behavior in fashion industry. *International Journal of Engineering and Management Research*, 10.
- [2]. Ekambareswarar, N. K., Boomika, D., & Kumar, R. D. (2021). A study about gender differences in impulsive buying decisions among university postgraduate students in Bengaluru, India. *International Journal of Business Forecasting and Marketing Intelligence*, 7(2), 113-123.
- [3]. Atilla, D. B. (2013). Gender differences in impulse buying. *International Journal of Business and Management Studies*, 2(1), 519-531.
- [4]. Muruganantham, G., & Bhakat, R. S. (2013). A review of impulse buying behavior. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, 5(3), 149.
- [5]. Akram, U., Hui, P., Khan, M. K., Yan, C., & Akram, Z. (2018). Factors affecting online impulse buying: evidence from Chinese social commerce environment. *Sustainability*, 10(2), 352.
- [6]. Ford, M. (2013, June 20). [blog.motivemetrics.com](http://blog.motivemetrics.com). Retrieved from [MotiveMetrics.com](http://MotiveMetrics.com)
- [7]. Vishnu, P., & Raheem, A. R. (2013). Factors influencing impulse buying behavior. *European Journal of Scientific Research*, 100(3), 67-79.
- [8]. Alba, J. W., & Hutchinson, J. W. (1987). Dimensions of consumer expertise. *Journal of consumer research*, 13(4), 411-454.
- [9]. Sarkar, A. (2011). Impact of utilitarian and hedonic shopping values on individual's perceived benefits and risks in online shopping. *International management review*, 7(1), 58.
- [10]. Babin, B. J., & Babin, L. (2001). Seeking something different? A model of schema typicality, consumer affect, purchase intentions and perceived shopping value. *Journal of Business research*, 54(2), 89-96.
- [11]. Bellenger, D. N., Robertson, D. H., & Hirschman, E. C. (1978). Impulse buying varies by product. *Journal of advertising research*, 18(6), 15-18.

- [12]. Beatty, S. E., & Ferrell, M. E. (1998). Impulse buying: Modeling its precursors. *Journal of retailing*, 74(2), 169-191.
- [13]. Cobb, C. J., & Hoyer, W. D. (1986). Planned versus impulse purchase behavior. *Journal of retailing*.
- [14]. Rook, D. W. (1987). The buying impulse. *Journal of consumer research*, 14(2), 189-199.
- [15]. Verplanken, B., & Herabadi, A. (2001). Individual differences in impulse buying tendency: Feeling and no thinking. *European Journal of personality*, 15(1\_suppl), S71-S83.
- [16]. Rook, D. W., & Fisher, R. J. (1995). Normative influences on impulsive buying behavior. *Journal of consumer research*, 22(3), 305-313.
- [17]. Puri, R. (1996). Measuring and modifying consumer impulsiveness: A cost-benefit accessibility framework. *Journal of consumer Psychology*, 5(2), 87-113.
- [18]. Dittmar, H., & Drury, J. (2000). Self-image—is it in the bag? A qualitative comparison between “ordinary” and “excessive” consumers. *Journal of economic psychology*, 21(2), 109-142.
- [19]. Park, E. J., Kim, E. Y., & Forney, J. C. (2006). A structural model of fashion-oriented impulse buying behavior. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*.
- [20]. Hausman, A. (2000). A multi-method investigation of consumer motivations in impulse buying behavior. *Journal of consumer marketing*.
- [21]. Muruganantham, G., & Bhakat, R. S. (2013). A review of impulse buying behavior. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, 5(3), 149.
- [22]. Varley, R. (2014). *Retail product management: buying and merchandising*. Routledge.
- [23]. Rook, D. W., & Fisher, R. J. (1995). Normative influences on impulsive buying behavior. *Journal of consumer research*, 22(3), 305-313.
- [24]. Lin, C. H., & Lin, H. M. (2005). AN EXPLORATION OF TAIWANESE ADOLESCENTS'IMPULSIVE BUYING TENDENCY. *Adolescence*, 40(157).
- [25]. Babin, B. J., & Babin, L. (2001). Seeking something different? A model of schema typicality, consumer affect, purchase intentions and perceived shopping value. *Journal of Business research*, 54(2), 89-96.
- [26]. Rana, S., & Tirthani, J. (2012). Effect of education, income and gender on impulsive buying among Indian consumer an empirical study of readymade garment customers. *Management*, 1(12).
- [27]. Sofi, S. A., & Nika, F. A. (2017). Role of intrinsic factors in impulsive buying decision: An empirical study of young consumers. *Arab Economic and Business Journal*, 12(1), 29-43.
- [28]. Rehman, F. U., Ilyas, M., Nawaz, T., & Hyder, S. (2014). How Facebook advertising affects buying behavior of young consumers: The moderating role of gender. *Academic Research International*, 5(4), 395-404.
- [29]. Jamil, R., Hassan, S., Farid, A., & Ahmad, N. (2017). Investigating the impact of consumer values and advocacy behavior on buying decision satisfaction: A study through gender lens. *Management Science Letters*, 7(4), 185-196.
- [30]. Kusuma, G. W., Idrus, S., & Djazuli, A. (2013). The Influence of Hedonic Shopping Motivations on Buying Decision with Gender as Dummy Variable:(A Study on Consumers at



- the Hardy's Mall Singaraja, Buleleng Regency, Indonesia). *European Journal of Business and Management*, 5(31), 241-246.
- [31]. Bashir, S., Zeeshan, M. U. H. A. M. M. A. D., Sabbar, S. A. B. B. A. R. D. A. H. H. A. M., Hussain, R. I., & Sarki, I. H. (2013). Impact of cultural values and life style on impulse buying behavior: a case study of Pakistan. *International Review of Management and Business Research*, 2(1), 193.
- [32]. Kim, J. (2003). College students' apparel impulse buying behaviors in relation to visual merchandising (Doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia).
- [33]. Wadera, D., & Sharma, V. (2018). Impulsive Buying Behavior in Online Fashion Apparel Shopping: An Investigation of the Influence of the Internal and External Factors among Indian Shoppers. *South Asian Journal of Management*, 25(3).
- [34]. Pinto, P., Hawaldar, I. T., & Pinto, S. (2020). Impulse buying behavior among female shoppers: Exploring the effects of selected store environment elements.
- [35]. Ahmad, T., & Vays, N. (2011). The impulse buying behavior of consumes for the FMCG products in Jodhpur. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 5(11), 1704-1710.
- [36]. Baumeister, R. F. (2002). Yielding to temptation: Self-control failure, impulsive purchasing, and consumer behavior. *Journal of consumer Research*, 28(4), 670-676.
- [37]. Bashir, T., Azam, N., Butt, A. A., Javed, A., & Tanvir, A. (2013). Are behavioral biases influenced by demographic characteristics & personality traits? Evidence from Pakistan. *European Scientific Journal*, 9(29).
- [38]. DeMatteo, L. A. (1994). From hierarchy to unity between men and women managers: towards an androgynous style of management. *Women in Management Review*.
- [39]. Mahmood, N. (2002). Women's role in domestic decision-making in Pakistan: implications for reproductive behaviour. *The pakistan development review*, 121-148.
- [40]. Lee, R. M., & Robbins, S. B. (2000). Understanding social connectedness in college women and men. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 78(4), 484-491.
- [41]. Solka, A., Jackson, V. P., & Lee, M. Y. (2011). The influence of gender and culture on Generation Y consumer decision making styles. *The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 21(4), 391-409.
- [42]. Xiao, G., & Kim, J. O. (2009). The investigation of Chinese consumer values, consumption values, life satisfaction, and consumption behaviors. *Psychology & marketing*, 26(7), 610-624.